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ABSTRACT

The means by which different delivery strategies can be matched with or made to accommodate to different inservice goals are discussed. A framework for assessing when one delivery strategy is more appropriate than another is provided. The framework for planning inservice delivery outlines distinct but complementary strategies that focus upon three basic and related goals. The first of these goals is to enhance adult cognitive, intrapersonal, and interpersonal development as it impinges upon teaching effectiveness. The second is to alter environmental (school) conditions that impinge upon teaching effectiveness. The final goal is to improve teaching effectiveness directly, especially by altering teacher instructional behavior in situ. Teachers in this program engage in different forms of inservice to achieve these different goals and select their goals on the basis of their personal assessment of needs. Alternative strategies for the delivery of inservice education are considered necessary to achieve a comprehensive program. (JD)

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Alternative Strategies for the Delivery of
Inservice

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TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC) AND USERS OF THE ERIC SYSTEM.

Overview

Inservice education is a multifaceted, complex endeavor. In a recent article, Leonard Sealy (1978) discusses the kaleidoscopic nature of professional development. He notes that aspects of inservice such as governance questions or matters of rewards and incentives are commonly focused on, but the relations among the various dimensions of inservice rarely receive adequate attention. Sealy concludes by stating, "The elements (of inservice education) are obvious, and now we can proceed with the task of finding some patterns. Beware of the person who says this is the way to do it."

We will attempt to answer Sealy's challenge to identify possible relations among the various dimensions of inservice education. We will also heed his warning. The relationships explored here only begin to exhaust the existing possibilities. Thus, we offer this analysis as a catalyst for further thought by those who are trying to understand how more coherent and effective forms of inservice can be achieved.

In this paper we illustrate how different delivery strategies can be matched with or made accommodative to different inservice goals. A framework for assessing when one delivery strategy is more appropriate than another is provided. This framework is developed through an examination of possible interrelationships between dimensions of adult development, organizational development, and pedagogical development. Put another way, different strategies are needed if one wishes to ensure the psychological well-being and continuing development of the teacher as a person and the school as a dynamic organization as well as altered instructional behavior.

Thus, the framework for planning inservice delivery outlines distinct but complementary strategies which focus upon the following related goals:

- 1) enhancing adult cognitive, intra and interpersonal development which impinge upon teaching effectiveness,
- 2) altering environmental (school) conditions which impinge upon teaching effectiveness and,
- 3) improving teaching effectiveness directly especially altering teacher instructional behavior in situ.

Thus, teachers will engage in different forms of inservice to achieve these different goals. Certainly, there are times when what we call inservice would appropriately address one's personal, psychological development. The reasoning here is that adults continue to develop along several dimensions just as children and adolescents do. 'Development' is not something which suddenly stops at age 18; adult development is a valid, if not fully understood concept. It is also clear that one's 'stage' or 'level' of moral and cognitive development would indeed affect how one teaches or, at least, prefers to teach. Since data suggests that not all adults, including teachers, naturally progress to 'higher stages' of development, then it appears appropriate that well-conceived programs of inservice attempt at times to further basic psychological development or at least assist teachers with clearer insights into their basic patterns of thinking and belief systems. Likewise it is easy to see that a variety of organizational factors can considerably influence what teachers do. These factors can either enhance or constrain against effective teaching. The frequent lack of transfer of teaching skills, obtained or practiced in controlled settings, to the more complex dynamic of the classroom amply illustrates our lack of sensitivity to the power of organizational factors.

In a recent survey.(Yarger, Howey, Joyce, 1978), it was clearly

documented that forms of inservice which addressed these two above concerns were relatively infrequent. Less than 1 in 5 of the teachers in this study engaged in inservice embedded in or related to one's work situation on any regular basis and even fewer reported opportunities to pursue inservice designed to enrich personal development. Even when inservice is provided external to the school site with the intent to address site specific needs, it is rarely accompanied by on-the-job follow-through. As few as 6% of the teachers in one state reported that inservice follow-through was regularly provided. It is not surprising then that only about 1 in 4 persons report that the inservice which they are involved with is consistently effective.

It was also clear from the study that teachers commonly perceive other teachers as the most helpful instructors for inservice which is embedded in the work situation. About two-thirds of the teachers in the study report this preference. It is likely that they hold this view because they rarely see anyone else on a continuing basis struggling with the realities of the school environment. However, while teachers may prefer other teachers to assume leadership within the school context since they have the most familiarity with it, there is little evidence that they fully understand the complex school culture themselves or, if they do, that they know how to improve it, gives rather obdurate and stable school conditions over the years.

Teachers in the survey, for example, were queried with respect to a number of possible arrangements for engaging in more inservice during the school day. The great majority of teachers viewed every scheme which would free them periodically during the day to engage in inservice most favorably. Yet, these same teachers reported that they rarely engaged in inservice at

other than late afternoon and evening times or during the summer. Changes in the organization of the school to support such desired practice is simply not a reality. Thus, we have an acknowledged desire on the one hand for more inservice which will address personal and organizational concerns and a documented lack of adequate responses to these concerns on the other.

Adult Development

One can make a cogent argument that one's level or stage of basic psychological development predisposes to a large extent the why one thinks about teaching or behaves as a teacher. A number of studies have indicated for example, that individuals who are measured as having more abstract or advanced abilities in the relational processing of information (higher conceptual levels) demonstrate greater behavioral flexibility, a wider spectrum of copying behaviors and a greater tolerance for stress (Hunt, 1971). Certainly these latter attributes to some extent differentiate effective and ineffective teaching especially in a dynamic and changing social system. The inservice goal of adult cognitive development can be addressed using David Hunt's theory of conceptual development (Moser & Sprinthall, 1971). According to Hunt (1971) conceptual level refers to the degree of complexity of information processing and the degree of interpersonal maturity. The degree of complexity of information processing is viewed on a continuum from concrete, limited interaction with stimuli to abstract, adaptation within a changing environment. Interpersonal maturity is viewed on a continuum from an immature, unsocialized stage to an autonomous, self-reliant stage.

Since low conceptual level individuals appear dependent on external standards and concrete and categorical thinking, and since they are generally less capable of generating their own concepts, a more highly structured

environment is desirable. Conversely, high conceptual level individuals are more capable of generating their own concepts and can integrate standards on multiple levels. Therefore they require less structure from the instructor or the material.

This theoretical framework provides a base by which adult cognitive development may be confronted.

The University of Minnesota/St. Paul Public Schools Teacher Corps Cycle XII conducted an inservice program utilizing a derivative of the Hunt model. A basic goal was to enhance the cognitive development of individual staff members of the site school. The model used was developed primarily by Erickson and Eberhardy (1978). This developmental approach to inservice incorporated the work of Jean Piaget (cognitive development), Lawrence Kohlberg (moral development), Jane Loevinger (ego development), as well as Hunt (conceptual development). The model is based on the assumption that good teachers are also good students of human development and even more fundamentally that adult development can be promoted to higher levels of complexity if proper conditions are set. Seminars, coursework, discussion groups, and materials such as books, films, and posters were provided to the staff with the intent of enhancing the cognitive development of the individuals.

Other conceptions of adult development have potential application to inservice programs as well. For example, Kohlberg (1966) and Turiel (1966) discuss adult changes from the perspective of moral development. Chickering (1969) addressed ego identity development and Willie (1977) identifies critical life issues.

Organizational Change

Altering environmental (school) conditions which impinge upon teacher development can be effected via organizational development models. The theoretical constructs of Hersey and Blanchard (1977) allow one to systematically study the growth pattern and level of maturity of the organization. Upon discerning 'the culture' of the school an appropriate leadership style is adopted to increase the productivity of the staff. In this situational leadership model, leaders such as key teachers might reduce their task behavior and increase relationship behavior until the organization reaches a moderate level of maturity. Thus, as the organization moves to higher levels of maturity, it becomes appropriate for leaders to decrease both task behavior and relationship behavior. When an appropriate match between leadership behavior and organizational maturity exists such factors as communication, peer relations, and task orientation of the organization could all enhance teaching effectiveness.

Another possible approach to confronting organizational development is the Concerns-Based Adoption Model (CBAM) developed by Hall (1975). The CBAM focuses attention on the dynamics of the individual 'innovation user' within the organizational context. Two key dimensions of the innovation user are identified: 1) levels of use of the innovation ranging from non-use, orientation thru integration and renewal and, 2) stages of concern about the innovation ranging from awareness and informational thru collaboration and refocusing. The underlying assumption of this model is that the adoption of innovations is a process rather than an event. Innovation users progress in their knowledge regarding the innovation and their skill in using it as well as progressing through stages in terms of feelings and concerns about

the innovation. Through the assessments of teacher concerns a clearer understanding of the extent to which the innovation is used, organizational conditions can be altered accordingly and the actions of teachers influenced.

Other models of organizational management exist as well. McGregor's (1960) model stresses assumptions about human nature. Argyris (1971) includes interpersonal competence in his model and Herzberg (1966) discusses motivation and hygiene factors.

Pedagogical Change

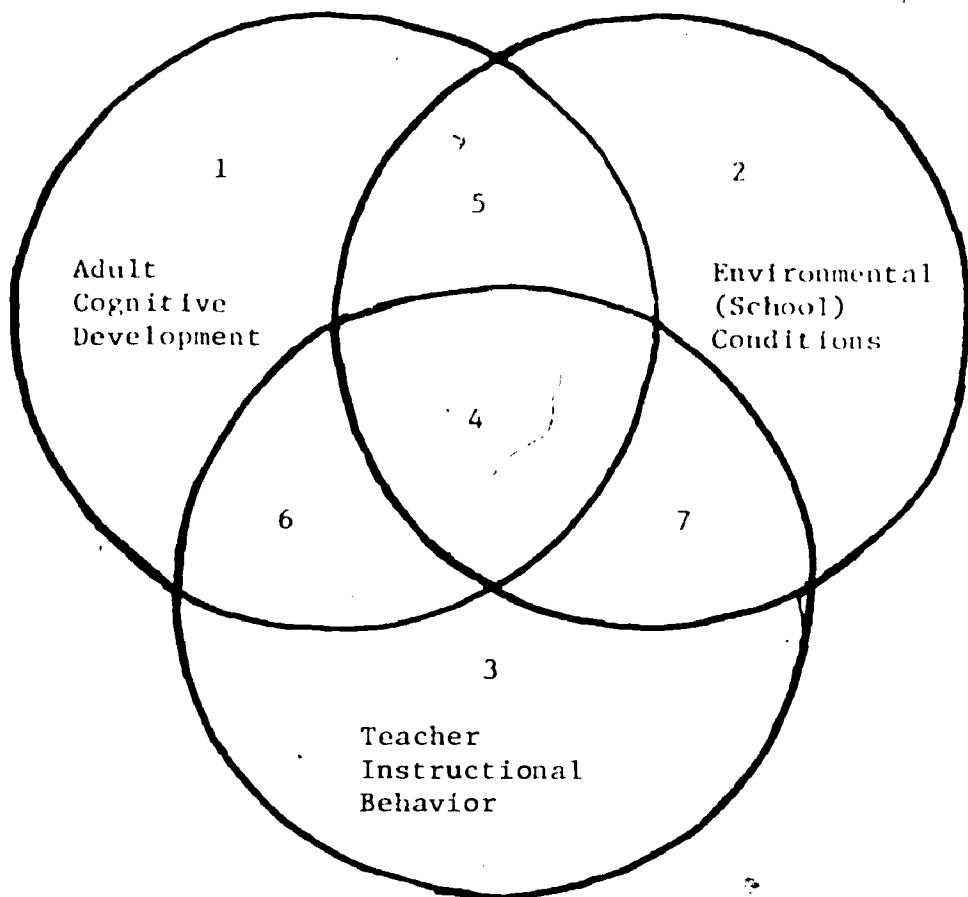
There are numerous approaches to altering teacher instructional behavior. A common approach is a clinical supervision approach. Goldhammer (1969) developed a prototype of clinical supervision consisting of the following five stages; 1) preobservation conference, 2) observation, 3) analysis and strategy, 4) supervision conference, and 5) post-conference analysis. This scheme is specifically designed to alter instructional skills of teachers.

Another framework for altering instructional skills has been developed by Joyce and Weil (1978). They identify three major families of teaching which include social models, personal models and information-processing models. They outline alternative teaching strategies such as inquiry lessons and non-directive counseling approaches. Many other models ranging from micro-teaching to competency-based approaches to teacher education are employed in addressing teacher instructional behavior.

Too often, however, inservice programs have identified only one type of change (i.e. altering adult cognitive development or altering environmental conditions or most likely altering instructional behavior), as their goal and have met with varied degrees of success. The interrelationships of the various goals and purposes of inservice must be considered first. Figure 1

diagrammatically shows the various intersections of the aforementioned goals.

FIGURE 1



It is obvious that the center portion of the diagram represents the confluence of the three major types of desired change. It is also obvious that each of these three goals or types of change can be addressed independently, yet hopefully with an appreciation of the relationships with the other dimensions of the total program. For example, if the cognitive development of an individual was sufficiently enhanced so as to allow the individual to accommodate greater levels of complexity, then a different approach to alter teacher instructional behavior would be appropriate as well.

Time does not allow further discussion of the various areas of overlap identified in Figure 1. Rather, the remaining portion of this paper will examine each of the three basic goal-types in terms of how various facets of inservice might be differentiated to achieve these different goals.

Some Basic Elements of Inservice

The inservice literature is replete with discussions regarding the assessment of needs, appropriate instructional formats to meet the needs, incentives to ensure appropriate involvement, documentation and evaluation efforts providing feedback to the various constituents, governance structures, and management schemata. All of these elements are integral to inservice programing and how they are addressed is contingent upon the goals of the program.

The brief aforementioned examples indicate the diversity of the goals. From the perspective of program development the various goals must be approached via different modalities. The elements of inservice education mentioned above (assessment of needs, instructional formats, incentives, documentation/evaluation, governance, and management) are in many ways contingent upon the goals of the program and indicate the way in which inservice is to be implemented. For example, an inservice program stressing changes in instructional or pedagogical behavior would attempt to ascertain specific skills and the general skill level of the staff. Whereas an inservice program attempting to alter the adult cognitive or intra- and interpersonal development would attempt to ascertain the development level of individuals and therefore conduct a radically different needs assessment. An inservice program directed at altering the environmental conditions of the school which impinge on the teacher would take yet another tact, an organizational

development approach to answering needs. Figure 2 provides a matrix for examining how approaches to different inservice goals would vary to the extent that each of our three major variables are considered.

FIGURE 2

	<i>Assessment</i>	<i>Instructional Format</i>	<i>Incentives</i>	<i>Implementation/Evaluation</i>	<i>Concerns</i>	<i>Management</i>
<i>Adult Development</i>						
<i>Environmental Conditions</i>						
<i>Pedagogical Change</i>						

Needs Assessment

The preceding paragraph discussed the need for alternative assessments of need. Too often the structure and/or focus of the assessment model/instruments severely limit what is assessed. This process then becomes in effect "the tail wagging the dog." Inservice goals should guide the type of assessment conducted and it is likely a single type of assessment is often inadequate to obtain an adequate understanding of inservice needs.

Adult cognitive development, for example, has been assessed by using a variety of methods. Hunt's (1977) Paragraph Completion Method is a

relatively short (15 minutes) innocuous tool by which conceptual complexity may be assessed. A more comprehensive battery of tests (Kohlberg's moral dilemmas, Hunt's paragraph completion method for conceptual complexity, Loevinger's sentence stems for ego development, etc.) may also be administered. Or, a trained school psychologist interacting on a regular basis with the staff in a variety of settings can informally approximate the cognitive development of the individuals through observations.

Environmental conditions can be assessed using the CBAM discussed earlier. Needs could also be determined upon conducting managerial analysis as outlined by Hersey and Blanchard.

Teacher instructional needs can be identified by a variety of systematic observation procedures, or a review of past training or specific perceived competencies. Regardless of what type of assessment is used the major point here is captured by Houston et al. (1978):

A major task in needs assessment is the selection, modification, or development of instruments appropriate for the data to be collected. Two factors related to the task are decisions regarding; 1) the variables associated with the people, programs, and organizational structures which are the data sources for needs assessment; and 2) the instrument formats appropriate for the specific information required (p. 207).

Instructional Format

Different goals often demand different instructional formats. Altering adult cognitive development, for example, demands a highly personalized format over a long period of time. It also mandates that a firm theoretical framework of cognitive development be provided to the individuals and that specific relationships between the theory and their personal/professional lives be established. It is imperative that opportunities for introspection and reflection as well as action are

provided.

On the other hand, attempts to alter the environmental conditions of the school often employ inservice formats which address the group as a whole. Leadership styles and organizational behavior is addressed by providing certain information and specific skills to the leaders of the organization. Thus inservice is differentiated for persons to assume different roles. The staff members collectively grapple with issues that affect the total school environment such as discipline procedures, and scheduling. The content would call upon some theoretical perspective of organizational management and employ a variety of problem-solving skills.

Altering instructional behavior often calls for specific skill training to be provided. Short term workshops, demonstration teaching and self-instructional training materials are common formats employed. It is important to accurately address the skill level of individual staff members. A clinical supervision model takes an individualized approach whereas the Joyce & Weil method of teaching alternative instructional strategies is best implemented using groups of individuals. Practice in actual teaching-learning settings incorporating feedback from peers and even students is also possible.

Incentives

Those involved in the different aspects of inservice will be motivated to participate for different reasons. Economic gains in the context of credits awarded, stipends, or salary increases is a common type of incentive. Again, however, each of the three basic dimensions seems to suggest additional logical benefits. For example, documentation of the actual effects of increased teacher knowledge and skill in their classroom

may be the most powerful reward for teachers who attempted some new pedagogical strategy and the most likely incentive for further participation. Actual contextual improvements such as the alteration of the instructional environment or improved working conditions may be the most powerful inducements to engage in organizational development. If changes in the school structure can enhance status and autonomy another powerful incentive exists. More visible psychological support, and greater self-awareness or an understanding that others are confronted with the same problems, seem motivational factors which are most consonant with those who would engage in altering adult cognitive development.

Documentation and Evaluation

It is readily apparent that documentation/evaluation models would differ as well, based on the radically different yet interrelated goals of a comprehensive program of inservice. Teacher instructional behavior can be readily observed and evaluated on any number of dimensions. For example, the Flanders system of interaction analysis can be used to determine the amount and type of teacher verbal behavior. Galloway's classification of non-verbal behavior can be used to investigate yet another dimension of instructional behavior. Quantitative and psychometric analyses can best examine desired changes in knowledge or skill. The transfer of training can be documented. Pre--post evaluation designs, for example, determine what was acquired in a given inservice program, to what extent materials are being used, and how and to what extent behavior has actually changed in the classroom. Quantitative analyses can also assist in compiling demographic data to build staff profiles and resource banks.

Managerial analyses can examine the efficacy and appropriateness of

the governance and decision-making processes. Are the leadership styles appropriate for the maturity of the organization? Are the "appropriate" individuals making the decisions? How are decisions being made? Are roles, responsibilities, goals, objectives, and communication systems clear to all constituents? Questions of this nature can determine the significance and impact of environmental (school) conditions.

Some changes in adult cognitive development can be measured using written instruments. Interviews, discussions and structured dialogue can afford an opportunity to examine multiple points of view and changing perceptions can be made more public. The impact that these changes may have on the students and total ecology of the school is critical. Ethnographic analyses can document the perceptions of the staff members regarding their own growth, changes and innovations within the school, and their feeling regarding the students.

Governance

Collaborative decision-making processes are likely in any comprehensive inservice program. However, specific goals of the inservice program may again call for differing decision-making structures. There may be various levels of governance ensuring that the various goals are attended to. For example, one level of governance may be concerned with policy-making at the all-school level. This responsibility is most appropriately vested in an elective body, chosen for the clearly identified function of deciding about matters which affect all persons in the school community. The overall goals of the program would be set at this level. A second level of governance could address the administration or management of the inservice program. The goals of organizational development are directly allied with this level of

governance.

A third level of governance relates directly to the teachers who are impacted by the inservice program. Although they are represented and influence the other levels of governance, the teachers shape the inservice program at the level of implementation. The goals of altering adult cognitive development and pedagogical change are directly addressed at this level. If the individual staff members choose not to participate, to alter the framework in some way, or to prematurely terminate an activity, the total program is influenced.

Management

Inservice programs, especially comprehensive ones, must be coordinated. Various role groups such as curriculum specialists, administrators, special resource teachers, team leaders, department chairpersons and staff must be orchestrated. At various times external parties such as professors, private consultants, community members, and state department representatives have to be identified and utilized. The conceptual framework of a program such as the one suggested here must be articulated in order for the vast array of cooperating individuals to understand how they interface with the total program. Yet, once again, the separate components of the program may well demand different types of management.

The management of the adult cognitive development of the staff may call for a high relationship, low task, non-threatening leadership style. In addition, the management would need to be sensitive to the growth and development of the individual and provide psychological support to the staff.

A systematic, high task, structured management scheme may be most productive in altering teacher instructional behavior. Offering direct

feedback of performance coupled with tangible rewards such as materials or instructional supplies call for a formalized identifiable management plan.

Organizational change suggests a collective view of the individuals within the school environment as well as external factors which impact the organization. Group dynamics and social structures need to be addressed.

Again, the elements of an inservice program are not discrete.

Governance structures influence management and instructional formats. Goals determine needs assessments. Needs assessments in turn obviously determine instructional formats and appropriate incentives. What can be employed as incentives are in turn controlled by management and governance. Documentation and evaluation are contingent upon all of the elements and reciprocally all of the elements are impacted by documentation and evaluation. It seems essential that more systemic paradigms be provided for the explication of these interdependencies.

Summary

Alternative strategies for the delivery of inservice education is necessary for comprehensive program renewal. Appropriate and differentiated strategies can be matched or made accommodative to the interrelated goals of the program. It is also evident that all facets of inservice education are in need of alternative models which will facilitate meeting the inservice needs of the school staff. We have attempted to show some possible relations among the various dimensions of inservice education. What other options exist?

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